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THESIS

THE EFFECT OF CIRCUMFERENTIAL TUBE WALL HEAT CONDUCTION UPON LAMINAR FILMWISE CONDENSATION ON THE OUTSIDE OF CONDENSER TUBES

by

Howard Michael Holland

December 1980

Thesis Advisor:

R. H. Nunn

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CONDUCTION UPON LAMINAR FILMWISE CONDENSATION
ON THE OUTSIDE OF CONDENSER TUBES

by

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degrees of

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ABSTRACT

This thesis describes the results of a theoretical study to predict the thermal behavior of an internally-cooled tube in a condensing vapor.

The analysis constitutes a unique application of the finite element method and provides new insights into the effects of circumferential conduction upon condenser tube performance. Comparisons are made between the present analysis and the theoretical and experimental works of others. The inclusion of circumferential conduction leads to an improvement in the predictive capabilities of the analytical model.

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I. INTRODUCTION

A. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

As the size, complexity, and hence the cost of modern warships have grown in the last thirty years, advances in basic research have been made and the computer has become a useful tool to the researcher and designer. The application of up-to-date research and computer technology to the design of modern warships is common but there remain major, costly components relatively unchanged and unreviewed in decades. It is in the interest of the Navy to ferret out these components and re-examine them.

One such component is the naval condenser. The basic engineering developments currently used to design naval condensers are from the Heat Exchanger Institute (H.E.I.) Standards for Steam Surface Condensers [1] and the standards of the Tubular Exchanger Manufacturers Association (T.E.M.A.) [2]. The Navy has further utilized the H.E.I. information in the Design Data Sheet (D.D.S.) [3]. While these standards have proven reliable, their performance margins and extensive use of averaged values may result in a larger, costlier condenser at no increase in performance and with an unnecessary margin of reliability. These performance margins, once necessary to insure reliability, are now called into question as the mysteries of condensation are unravelled.

It is for the purpose of reducing the size of the condenser that many researchers are trying to increase the heat transfer rate per unit of condensing surface area.

B. CONDENSATION IN A NAVAL CONDENSER

A typical naval condenser uses the heat transfer mechanism of filmwise condensation to the outside of horizontal, cylindrical tubes. Dropwise condensation is therefore not considered in this thesis.

The inside of the tube has single-phase turbulent forced convection heat transfer. The correlations associated with this phenomenon are accurate enough to justify confidence in their use. The fouling of the inside of the tube is poorly understood, and varies greatly, so that a necessary design allowance is made and a performance margin created. The heat transfer through the tube wall itself is by conduction, a classical problem in cylindrical coordinates, and can be calculated as accurately as the properties of the tube material and the surrounding heat transfer coefficients are known.

Aside from a greater knowledge of coolant-side fouling and how to control it, it is largely on the steam side of the tube that advances of knowledge can be reasonably expected. Here there are three important phenomena. The first is the transfer of heat through a thin layer of condensate from a vapor, either quiescent or flowing, which causes that vapor to lose its latent heat of vaporization and join the film of

condensate on the tube. As condensing particles join this liquid layer they retain some, none, or all of the momentum they possessed as a vapor. The dynamic interaction of the vapor and the liquid under both forced flow and quiescent vapor conditions presents a formidable problem to the researcher. A second phenomenon on the steam side of the tube is the presence of noncondensable gases which complicates and usually degrades the performance of the condenser. The third phenomenon is the inundation of a condenser tube by "condensate rain," or condensate condensed elsewhere in the condenser which, as it makes its way to the hotwell, impinges upon the condenser tube.

C. IMPROVING THE HEAT TRANSFER

If the rate of heat transfer for a given area of condensing surface were to be increased, then the total size of a condenser could be reduced. The result would be savings in space, weight, and possibly cost. Various methods of increasing the heat transfer in a naval condenser have been proposed.

Among these are:

1. Reducing the Internal Fouling

The reduction of internal fouling would certainly increase the rate of heat transfer. While various tube metals and chemical treatments to the coolant side of the condenser can reduce fouling, operational and other considerations have prevented their use in naval condensers. Aside from mechanical cleaning, no acceptable method of significantly

reducing marine fouling in a naval condenser has presented itself.

2. Eliminating Noncondensable Gases

The elimination or reduction of noncondensable gases in the condensing steam would be expected to increase the heat transfer rate. It is a fact of realistic operation in a marine environment that noncondensable gases cannot be eliminated. There is room for improvement in their continual removal from the condenser by air ejector devices. As long as complicated systems with mechanical seals are used in the shipboard environment, some amount of noncondensable gases will be in the condenser.

3. Enhancing Heat Transfer

a. Shaping of Tubes

Various ingenious shapes of tubes have been demonstrated to increase heat transfer rate for a given amount of tube surface area. Complications arise from these tubes, however, not the least being a sharp increase in the pumping power required to maintain an adequate coolant flow rate.

b. Promoting Dropwise Condensation

The use of various promoters upon the tube outer surface to prevent the forming of a liquid film, thus keeping the condensate in droplet form, has been proposed and demonstrated by many authors. Since it is not the intention of this thesis to examine the effect of this phenomenon, suffice it to say that until now there remains a question as to whether

any promoter has demonstrated the robustness to withstand continued, long-term use.

4. Eliminating or Reducing Inundation

Since condensers are formed with banks of tubes, it is inevitable that condensate draining from one tube should impinge upon some other lower tube. The effect of this in filmwise condensation is normally to thicken the condensate film and to reduce the rate of heat transfer. The proper placement of collection trays or baffles is of great importance in channelling falling condensate away from lower tubes. The number and placement of these collection trays is not examined in this thesis.

5. Utilizing High Vapor Velocities

In many regions of a naval condenser, vapor velocities of 300 ft/sec or more may occur. These high velocities create a forced flow situation on the steam side, thin the film of condensate, and generally increase the heat transfer coefficients on the steam side. The higher velocities also cause complications, one of which is the separation of the vapor boundary layer causing the condensate film to thicken suddenly. The heat transfer in the region of the tube which is after the vapor phase separation point is relatively unknown.

D. REVIEW OF GENERAL RESEARCH IN CONDENSATION

In analyzing the condensation of steam on tubes, the cornerstone of research was laid by Nusselt [4] who analyzed

a quiescent vapor condensing on a vertical flat plate and on a horizontal cylinder. Nusselt's analysis allowed for no interfacial shear stress between the flowing condensate and the condensing vapor. He also used a constant tube wall surface temperature.

Rohsenow, et al., [5] later expanded this work to include the effect of vapor shear at the vapor-liquid interface upon the condensation rates. This analysis was for a vertical flat plate of uniform temperature with either turbulent or laminar flow of condensate.

Sparrow and Gregg [6] conducted the first analysis of surface condensation using boundary layer theory. They included momentum terms in the condensate film analysis to account for acceleration of the flowing condensate. They showed that the momentum terms were insignificant under most conditions.

Koh, et al., [7] did further work allowing the falling condensate to drag the vapor along with it, while still using a constant wall surface temperature.

Shekriladze and Gomelauri [8] expanded upon the earlier work of Rohsenow, et al., [5], analyzing the effect of a flowing vapor upon laminar filmwise condensation in the absence of significant gravity effects. Their model used a constant wall surface temperature.

Denney and Mills [9] expanded this area of analysis to include the influence of gravity upon the condensate film, holding to a constant wall surface temperature.

E. RECENT WORK CONCERNING CONDENSATION ON TUBES

1. Vapor-Condensate Interfacial Shear Models

One of the areas of continual interest in condensation of steam on a tube is the question of the effect of the shear or drag of the condensing vapor upon the flowing condensate. Theories which attempt to quantify the interaction abound, but recent ones take one of two general forms.

The first type of model says that total shear is the result of the summation of dry friction shear of the vapor upon a bare tube and a shear caused by the condensing vapor retaining some, none, or all of its vapor phase momentum. The deceleration of this vapor as it joins the liquid layer causes this shear. Various authors [8, 10, 11, 12, 13,] subscribe to some combination of these two shears.

Other researchers [14, 15] subscribe to a theory which reaches more deeply into the molecular level interactions and in reality appears to be a more minute examination of the same idea. Using a Reynolds Flux concept, these authors state that for a flowing fluid there is a transport of momentum in a direction normal to the mass flow which is on the molecular level in laminar flow but involves larger amounts of fluid in turbulent flow. This transport is a function of temperature in laminar flow and of temperature and free stream turbulence in turbulent flow. As one of these cross-flowing particles approaches a solid wall, it is decelerated to a standstill. As it rebounds from the wall, it is reaccelerated. Thus,

an overall rate of condensation can be represented by superimposing a velocity perpendicular to the wall, similar to suction through a dry wall.

The latter theory includes within it a relationship between the rate of condensation and temperature drop that must necessarily occur in the process [14]. The former frictional shear force theories commonly assume that the outer surface of the condensate film is at the steam saturation temperature.

2. Wall Temperature Models

Fujii, et al., [16] display from their experimental data that tube temperature varies around the outside surface of the tube. In their calculations, however, they use averaged values for tube wall temperature and for the temperature-dependent heat transfer coefficients to calculate heat transfer.¹

Nobbs and Mayhew [17] show that for steam flowing vertically downward, a variable temperature analysis results in a marked overall change in heat transfer. The state that earlier isothermal tube wall surface models were optimistic in their predicted heat transfer.

¹Since the writing of this thesis, new results have been obtained by Fujii and his coworkers. The reader is referred to the Proceedings of the Workshop on Modern Developments in Marine Condensers, Naval Postgraduate School, 26-28 March, 1980.

Nicol and Wallace [13] show that local heat transfer coefficients are indeed a function of local tube surface temperature and recognize the importance of the circumferential path in heat conduction. In one of the first analyses to include this path of heat transfer, these authors apply a relaxation technique and iterative scheme, changing the temperature distribution and then the local heat transfer coefficients. It is interesting to note that their results show that when the circumferential heat conduction path is included, the average heat transfer coefficient rises about twenty-five percent.

Nicol, et al., [18] analyze steam crossflow upon condenser tube (Fig. 1) using a formulation wherein local tube surface temperatures are used to calculate local heat transfer coefficients. Their results show that the variable wall temperature formulation predicts less heat transfer than older isothermal wall models. The effect of circumferential conduction around the tube wall is not included in their analysis. A close look at Fig. 7 of their work, partially reproduced here as Fig. 2, shows a theoretical wall temperature profile and a few measurements of surface temperature around the tube wall. In their discussion of this particular figure they state:

"The profiles are seen to agree quite well, the main differences being in the rounding off of the more extreme peaks of the theoretical profile because of the circumferential conduction in the tube wall, which is of course more pronounced in those regions where the temperature gradient is high."

Nicol, et al., [18] also present theoretical curves of local heat transfer coefficients, local heat flux, and local tube surface temperature. These cases are presented for both an older isothermal wall model and an anisothermal wall model where heat can flow only radially in the tube wall.

Fujii, et al., [19] use the results of Nicol, et al., [18] for variable wall surface temperature, coupled with earlier work [20] and develop another model based upon the assumption of uniform heat flux around the tube. These authors also recognize the path of circumferential heat conduction as an important area for further work.

F. Purpose of Research

It is in this final area that the author has analyzed, with the computer, a single tube of a condenser and has included in his analysis the circumferential conduction of heat in the tube wall, a phenomenon not customarily included in condenser heat transfer analysis.

II. A SPECIFIC PROBLEM FOR STUDY

A. THE SINGLE TUBE PROBLEM

A review of prior research has indicated ideas and trends. One basic idea was that local heat transfer coefficients depend upon local temperature differences and that the shearing force depends upon these heat transfer coefficients. The trend was away from older isothermal wall models to newer variable wall temperature (anisothermal) models. The logical continuation of the trend would indicate that a wall fully capable of two dimensional heat conduction would have been better still.

Since actual tube walls can conduct heat in the circumferential direction, then a model which could account for this would be an improvement over previous models. In order to test the plethora of shear force and condensation rate theories, a model including the effect of circumferential conduction is desirable, and may prove to be essential.

B. THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

The problem was posed for the upper half of a cylindrical condenser tube with a cross-flowing vapor, that is, where the direction of the gravitational force and the direction of vapor flow were perpendicular, (See Fig. 1a). Symmetry with the other half of the tube was assumed, allowing the simplification that the ends of the half tube, where it would normally

join the other half, were adiabatic walls. The problem for solution was set up so that θ , the local temperature difference, was defined thusly:

$$\theta(r, \phi) = T_s - T(r, \phi) \quad (1)$$

While T_s may vary with pressure changes around the tube, it is assumed constant herein. The governing equation for heat transfer within the tube wall is the Laplace Equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial \phi^2} = 0 \quad , \quad (2)$$

with the following boundary conditions:

$$q_i = k_w \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial r} \right)_{r_i, \phi} = h_i [\theta(r_i, \phi) - \theta_c]$$

$$q_o = -k_w \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial r} \right)_{r_o, \phi} = h_o \theta_o .$$

On the inside of the tube turbulent forced convection was assumed and the Dittus-Boelter correlation [21] was used to provide a heat transfer coefficient.

On the outside of the tube, the condensate flow was taken to be laminar, and heat transfer through the thin condensate layer was assumed to be purely by conduction. For such conditions the film heat transfer coefficient is given by:

$$h_o = \frac{k_o}{\delta} \quad (3)$$

The film thickness δ was calculated from the formulation due to Nicol, et al., [18] (see also Appendix A). This analysis yields the following first-order differential equation:

$$\frac{d\delta}{d\phi} = \frac{\frac{3\mu r_o k_o \theta_o}{gh_f g' \rho_o (\rho_o - \rho_v)} - \delta^4 \sin \phi - \frac{3\delta^3}{2g(\rho_o - \rho_v)} \frac{d\tau_v}{d\phi}}{\frac{3\delta^2 \tau_v}{g(\rho_o - \rho_v)} - 3\delta^3 \cos \phi} \quad (4)$$

The shear term, τ_v , used by Nicol, et al., [18] was one given by Schlichting [22] and is of the following form:

$$\tau_v = \frac{4\rho_v U_v^2}{\left(\frac{U_v r_0 \rho_v}{\mu_v}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}} (6.973\phi - 2.732\phi^3 + 0.292\phi^5 - 0.0183\phi^7 + 0.000043\phi^9 - 0.000115\phi^{11}). \quad (5)$$

For the sake of comparison this author used the same shear stress model. This model calculates vapor boundary layer separation at about 108 degrees from the forward stagnation point. Thereafter, the shear stress was set to zero.

In order to integrate Eq. (4) a starting value of condensate film thickness at the stagnation point was needed. Because high velocity steam flowing horizontally normal to a horizontal tube was to be studied, $\frac{d\delta}{d\phi}$ was set equal to zero for the stagnation point ($\phi = 0$), and an approximate starting value for the condensate film thickness, δ , was found from Eqs. (4) and (5).

Once this starting value was in hand, Eq. (4) was integrated, in its entirety, around the tube using an estimate of the tube surface temperature difference, [$\theta_0 = \theta(r_0, \phi)$]. The integration resulted in the local film thickness around the tube wall. Local heat transfer coefficients for the steam side were then calculated according to Eq. (3).

Using these local heat transfer coefficients Eq. (2) could then be integrated, resulting in a temperature distribution throughout the solid tube wall. With a new set of tube-wall outer surface temperatures in hand, a new set of local heat

transfer coefficients could be calculated and applied for another iteration of the Laplace equation. If temperatures converged and heat transfer balanced, then a solution was in hand.

C. THE GALERKIN FINITE ELEMENT METHOD

The purpose of this application of the Galerkin Finite Element method is to solve a steady state two dimensional heat conduction problem by converting the governing partial differential equation, the Laplace equations in this case, to a series of algebraic equations. Each of these algebraic equations represents the partial differential equation over a small sub-region of the total domain called an element. The result of the simultaneous solution of these algebraic equations is to drive the integral square error of the approximate solution to zero over each element. Elements may be of different sizes and may be clustered in areas where greater accuracy is desired.

The Galerkin Finite Element method differs from the Galerkin method in that, since the algebraic equation representing the approximate solution exists over only one small element, the resultant matrix of algebraic equations for solution takes on a banded form. That is, it has zero upper and lower triangles of significant size. The resultant savings in computer storage space and computational time by using special matrix equation solvers is significant.

In this discreet approximation method the boundary conditions are applied locally to each element on the boundary of the domain. In this case linear triangular elements were used. The algebraic approximations to the solution, called basis or shape functions, were linear. The resultant approximate solution amounts to approximating a smooth three dimensional surface by a mosaic containing a large number of small triangles. Triangles size varied, small ones being used in such areas of interest as the forward stagnation point and anywhere a steep temperature gradient could be expected to exist. Larger elements were used in areas where the temperature profile was considered to be relatively unchanging. As solutions progressed, refinement of the triangular meshes highlighted and concentrated upon areas of interest.

For greater detail on both the Galerkin method and the Galerkin finite element method, the interested reader is referred to Ozisik [23] and Fairweather [24].

The formulation and computer program were tested using classical two-dimensional problems of heat conduction from Carslaw and Jaeger [25]. The first of these was a rectangle with one side at a given temperature and the other three at a specified lower temperature. The second was a rectangle with two adjoing sides adiabatic, a third side at a given temperature, and the fourth having a given heat transfer

coefficient to a medium at some lower temperature. In both cases the finite element solutions converged to exact solutions.

A further test of the program and formulation was the problem of a rectangle with two opposite sides adiabatic, a third side at a given temperature, and the fourth side having a local heat transfer coefficient to some medium at a lower temperature. This local heat transfer coefficient was dependent upon both the local surface temperature and the position along the wall. Since this problem cannot be compared to a classical solution, any solution could only be given credence by detailed examination. It was seen that the solution converged for smaller and smaller triangle sizes, that plots of isotherms internal to the rectangle were smooth and not obviously in error, and that heat transfer into and out of the rectangle was in balance. While certainly no proof, these comparisons led to confidence in the program.

D. APPLICATION OF THE INNER BOUNDARY CONDITION

For the inside of the tube, the boundary condition of convection heat transfer, Eq. (2), can be simply represented by noting that the inside film coefficient, h_i , is given by the Dittus-Boelter correlation [21], and is a function of coolant bulk temperature and flow rate. Thus, since the thermal resistance at his interface is independent of local tube wall temperature, the resistance may be represented by a fictitious

thickness of insulating material according to the relationship:

$$R = \frac{1}{h_i A} = \frac{r_i \ln \left(\frac{r_i}{r_i - t_f} \right)}{K_f A} . \quad (6)$$

From this, the thickness of the fictitious ring t_f , was determined and the equivalent boundary condition, that the coolant temperature existed at the inside of the fictitious ring, was imposed.

E. SOLUTION PROCEDURE

On the outside of the tube, the local heat transfer coefficients were computed all around the tube for the current value of the calculated local outside wall temperature. These local heat transfer coefficients were applied to elements having sides on the outer tube wall.

In order to converge to the proper wall temperatures and temperature-dependent heat transfer coefficients, an iterative scheme was followed wherein a new set of local heat transfer coefficients for the outside of the tube were computed from new solution temperatures. The process was repeated until temperatures at all nodal points changed less than 0.02 degrees Celsius for consecutive iterations.

Having stabilized the local temperatures throughout the tube wall, a check was made to insure that the heat transfer balanced. The total heat deposited upon the condenser tube outer wall by the condensing steam was compared to the total heat conducted into the tube wall at the outer surface and to the total heat conducted from the tube at its inner surface.

F. COMPARISON WITH PREVIOUS SOLUTIONS

The aforementioned paper of Nicol, et al., [18] provided fertile ground for comparison, but only if the test conditions could be simulated. These authors were able to achieve a given average tube outer surface temperature by varying the flowrate of the coolant and hence the internal heat transfer coefficient. In the finite element formulation this condition is obtained by varying the thickness of the aforementioned fictitious ring. In order to preclude significant circumferential conduction in the fictitious ring, the circumferential thermal conductivity of the fictitious ring was chosen to be one one-hundredth of the thermal conductivity of the tube wall.

III. RESULTS

A. TUBE WALL TEMPERATURE

The tube wall temperature predictions of the author's finite element model are shown in Fig. (3), and are seen to support the prediction of Nicol et al., [18] that circumferential heat conduction would substantially round off the theoretical temperature profile obtained by considering radial heat conduction only. It is also worthwhile to note that the maximum and minimum temperatures are less extreme than those predicted by the radial heat flow model of Nicol et al., [18] and generally agree more closely with their experimental results. While the actual differences in temperature appear small, near the separation point of the vapor flow these differences approach thirty percent.

Nicol et al., [18] also show a theoretical tube wall surface temperature profile for another average wall temperature. This profile is reproduced in Fig. 4 along with a theoretical profile developed from the author's model. As before, the steep gradients are rounded off and the overall temperature profile is less extreme.

A plot of the isotherms within the tube wall is quite revealing and is shown in Fig. (5). The direction of vapor flow and point of vapor boundary layer separation, as indicated by the thickening of the condensate layer, are shown on the

figure. The isotherms are seen to start close together near the vapor stagnation point and to spread, reflecting lower rates of heat transfer, progressively around the tube. In the vicinity of separation of the vapor boundary layer, the isotherms are seen to deviate significantly from their concentric upstream orientation. This reflects a significant amount of heat transfer circumferentially around the tube in this general vicinity. The much wider spacing of the isotherms on the back part of the tube indicates that according to this model it is an area of relatively low heat transfer rate.

1. Local Heat Transfer Coefficients

Figure 6 shows a comparison of local heat transfer coefficients around the tube wall. The isothermal wall and radial heat flow local transfer coefficients of Nicol et al., are partially reproduced. The results of the finite element model are seen to lie generally between the other two models with the exception of the vapor-separated region. In the region prior to separation, as seen in Fig. 4, the wall temperature difference of the finite element model lies between the isothermal wall case and radial heat flow case. From Eq. (4) at the stagnation point, the initial value of the film thickness is proportional to $\theta_0^{1/3}$. Therefore, a larger temperature difference will create a larger initial film thickness, and therefore a smaller heat transfer coefficient, as given by Eq. (3). It is not unexpected that this formulation and solution should predict a greater heat

transfer coefficient in the separated region than the isothermal wall model. Since there was a higher wall temperature and therefore less steam condensed in the unseparated portion of the tube in the present model, there is a thinner condensate layer in the after section of the tube. In the separated region the greater heat transfer coefficient predicted by the author's model over the radial heat flow model is not fully explained, but is no-doubt due, in part, to the assumption of symmetry in the present formulation.

2. Local Heat Flux

In still a third examination under these same conditions, Nicol et al. in their Fig. 6 present local heat flux for both the isothermal wall and radial heat flow models. These profiles are partially reproduced here in Fig. 7 along with the author's results which again, as expected, lie between the two previous models except in the separated-vapor region of the tube. It is interesting to note that the inclusion of circumferential effects generates a heat flux which is much closer to being uniform than that which is obtained with the isothermal wall model.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The circumferential path of heat conduction has been successfully included in the solution of laminar filmwise condensation of high velocity steam on condenser tubes. The author's anisothermal fully-conducting wall model yields closer agreement to previously measured tube wall surface temperatures than a previous anisothermal wall model which allowed only radial heat flow. The maximum and minimum values of wall temperature were less extreme for the anisothermal fully conducting wall than for the anisothermal wall with only radial heat flow.

The addition of a circumferential path for heat flow results in a complicated interplay between this heat flow and heat being deposited locally by condensation and leaving in the internal cooling water. The addition of vapor velocity effects on the outside surface of the film, and especially the sudden changes arising from separation of the vapor flow result in a highly complex sequence of thermal and fluid-dynamical interactions. The methods developed herein, though still subject to comprehensive experimental verification, are adequate to predict these complex phenomena.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

Now that a model for two-dimensional heat conduction which includes temperature-dependent local heat transfer coefficients has been developed and demonstrated, the use of this model for further study is suggested. Areas thought fruitful for further examination are both the shear stress models and the temperature-dependent condensation rate models. For shear stress models the separated vapor region or trailing area must be given closer examination since it accounts for about forty percent of the surface area of the tube and the fluid flow characteristics in this region remain relatively unknown. In the study of temperature-dependent condensation rate models, further examination of the effect of the velocity of the flowing vapor and local temperature is expected to be fruitful.

The vigorous exercise of this model through a broad range of steam-side and coolant side conditions is suggested.

The model of condensation with constant heat flux proposed by several authors [18, 20, 26], should be re-examined since circumferential heat conduction in the tube wall, when included in the analysis, seems to yield a nearly constant heat flux distribution.

APPENDIX A

Local Rate of Change of Condensate Film Thickness

A force balance on the shaded element of Fig. 1b yields the following:

$$\tau_v r_o d\phi - \tau_\ell r_o d\phi - g(\rho_\ell - \rho_v) \cos\phi r_o (\delta - y) d\phi = 0$$

so that:

$$\tau_\ell = \mu \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \tau_v - (\rho_\ell - \rho_v) g \cos\phi (\delta - y) .$$

Integrating:

$$u = \frac{\tau_v y}{\mu} - (\rho_\ell - \rho_v) \frac{g}{\mu} \cos\phi (\delta y - \frac{y^2}{2}) .$$

The average velocity, \bar{u} is:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{u} &= \frac{1}{\delta} \int_0^\delta u dy = \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{\tau_v}{\mu} \frac{\delta^2}{2} - \frac{g}{\mu} \left(\frac{\rho_\ell - \rho_v}{\delta} \right) \cos\phi \left[\frac{\delta^3}{2} - \frac{\delta^3}{6} \right] , \text{ or} \\ \bar{u} &= \frac{\tau_v \delta}{2\mu} - (\rho_\ell - \rho_v) \frac{g}{\mu} \cos\phi \frac{\delta^2}{3} . \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

The mass flow rate of condensate around the tube is:

$$\dot{m}_\ell = \rho_\ell \delta \bar{u}$$

and, with Eq. (8),

$$\dot{m}_\ell = \frac{\tau_v \rho_\ell}{2\mu} \delta^2 - \frac{g \rho_\ell (\rho_\ell - \rho_v)}{3\mu} \cos\phi \delta^3 .$$

The rate of change of mass flow rate with respect to angle is:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\dot{m}_\ell}{d\phi} &= \frac{\rho_\ell \delta^2}{2\mu} \frac{d\tau_v}{d\phi} + \frac{\rho_\ell \tau_v \delta}{\mu} \frac{d\delta}{d\phi} + \frac{g \rho_\ell (\rho_\ell - \rho_v) \delta^3 \sin\phi}{3\mu} \\ &\quad - \frac{g \rho_\ell (\rho_\ell - \rho_v)}{\mu} \cos\phi \delta^2 \frac{d\delta}{d\phi} \end{aligned}$$

Since $d\dot{m}/d\phi$ can also be equated to the amount of steam condensing, the following relationship applies:

$$\frac{d\dot{m}_L}{d\phi} = \frac{r_o k_L \theta_o}{\delta h'_{fg}}$$

where h'_{fg} is the latent heat of vaporization corrected for subcooling. By making this substitution and solving for $d\delta/d\phi$, the relationship given in Eq. (4) is obtained.

APPENDIX B: PROGRAM LISTING

A FINITE ELEMENT PROGRAM USING FIRST ORDER LINEAR GALERKIN
FINITE ELEMENTS TO SOLVE TWO-DIMENSIONAL HEAT TRANSFER
ELEMENTS WITH NON-LINEAR, TEMPERATURE DEPENDENT BOUNDARY
CONDITIONS.

THE PRESENT SET UP IS FOR A CYLINDRICAL CONDENSER TUBE
WITH FILMWISE CONDUCTION ON THE OUTSIDE AND TURBULENT
FORCED CONVECTION ON THE INSIDE.

THE FOLLOWING IS A LIST OF
VARIABLE NAMES USED IN THE
PROGRAM.

VARIABLES OF THE GENERAL PROBLEM.

AIRI THE AREA OF EACH TRIANGLE IN THE FINITE ELEMENT
CSUEF VALUE OF SPECIFIC HEAT OF LIQUID WATER AT CONSTANT
FNEEC PRESSURE
VALUES OF THE FORCING FUNCTION AT EACH ESSENTIAL
F BOUNDARY CONDITION.
A VECTOR OF FIVE THANG SIDES FOR SOLVING THE MATRIX
EQUATION RESULTING FROM THE FINITE ELEMENT
FORMULATION.
HT LOCAL HEAT TRANSFER COEFFICIENT.
FCL THE CORRESPONDENCE TABLE RELATING THE POSITIONS
KERR OF THE FREE CORNERS OF EACH TRIANGLE.
MAX THE TOTAL ELEMENTS OF THE BANCED GLOBAL MATRIX,
ACOLN A COUNTER.

NCELL1 A VECTOR CONTAINING THE NUMBER OF EACH CONVECTION
 NCELLC A VECTOR CONTAINING THE INSIDE NUMBER OF EACH CONVECTION
 NCHK A VECTOR CONTAINING THE OUTSIDE NUMBER OF EACH CONVECTION
 A VALUE USEFUL TO CHECK AGREEMENT FROM ITERATION TO
 THE NUMBER OF EACH ELEMENT.
 NEBC THE NUMBER OF EACH ELEMENT. EACH OF THE NODAL POINTS WHERE A
 NEL THE NUMBER OF EACH ELEMENT IS SPECIFIED.
 NLC THE NUMBER OF EACH ELEMENT CO-DIAGONALS OF THE GLOBAL MATRIX
 NNP THE TOTAL NUMBER OF NODAL POINTS FORMING A CONVECTION BOUNDARY, THIS
 NSDC FOR EVERY ELEMENT SIZES THE ECUNDARY ELEMENT CO-DIAGONALS OF THE GLOBAL MATRIX
 NUC THE NUMBER OF UPPER CO-DIAGONALS OF THE GLOBAL MATRIX
 RHOL THE DENSITY OF LIQUID WATER AT SATURATION CONDITIONS.
 RHOV THE DENSITY OF WATER VAPOR AT SATURATION CONDITIONS.
 X THE FORTINERIAL COORDINATES IN THE CARTESIAN COORDINATE
 Y THE VERTICALE COORDINATE IN THE CARTESIAN COORDINATE
 XL012 THE LENGTH OF THE SIDE OF A CONVECTION ELEMENT FROM
 XLO23 THE LOCAL ELEMENT POINT 1 TO LOCAL ELEMENT POINT 2.
 XLSFAKE THE LENGTH OF LOCAL NODAL POINT 2 TO LOCAL NODAL POINT 3.
 XLTBAR THE AVERAGE LOCAL TEMPERATURE ALONG THE CONVECTIVE
 ZA THE GLOBAL MATRIX FORMED IN THE FINITE ELEMENT METHOD,
 ZAST A STORED CAN EENCE STORAGE MATRIX SO THAT ONCE IT IS
 XKL1Q THE THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY OF LIQUID WATER AT SATURATION
 XKSL THE THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY OF THE SOLID TUBE MATERIAL
 XMUL THE DYNAMIC VISCOSITY
 XMUV THE DYNAMIC VISCOSITY OF WATER VAPOR AT THE SATURATION
 XHFG THE LATENT HEAT OF VAPORIZATION OF WATER AT THE
 VELST THE FREE STREAM VELOCITY OF THE FLOWING STEAM.

VARIABLE NAMES ASSOCIATED WITH
THE SPECIFIC GEOMETRY OF THIS
PROBLEM.

R THE RADIAL DISTANCE AT WHICH POINTS WILL BE PLACED IN
PFEF THE VARIOUS RADIAL ELEMENTS.
TAU A VECTOR OF LOCAL ELEMENT FORCES. ONE FOR EACH CF
DTAL A VECTOR OF LOCAL ELEMENT FORCES. ONE FOR EACH CF
NENFI NUMBER OF ELEMENTS OF EACH ANGLE.
ABFC NUMBER OF ELEMENTS OF EACH ANGLE.
NANG NUMBER OF ELEMENTS OF EACH ANGLE.
NRAD NUMBER OF RADIAL ELEMENTS ORIENTED RADIAL FLUX PATHS.
NEIR THE NUMBER OF ELEMENTS OF EACH ROW CONVECTION.
NCBCC THE NUMBER OF ELEMENTS OF CENTER CONVECTION BOUNDARY CONDITIONS.

```
DIMENSION F(220),NCEL(40),NCELL(40),NSDC(40),HCK(600)
1,TZR(40),YEAR(40),FH(600)
2,KRR(600),Z17A(320),251R(151),FEE(50),
3,DIMEN(40),XLL(800),Z12A(320),TAU(40),DTAL(40),
4,REALLEN*X(320),Y(320),Z(320),T(320),XL012(40),XL023(40),
5,DIMENS(11),NEBC(40),FNEBC(40),NBNPC(40),
6,REFE(11),NUC(11),NUCH(11),NCK(11),NCO(11),
7,REFAC(11),NEL(11),BFH(11),RHCV(11),XKLIC(11),XKSCL
8,REFAC(11),XKUL(11),XKLI(11),XKLV(11),
9,REFAC(11),XKUL(11),XKLI(11),XKLV(11),
10,REFAC(11),XKUL(11),XKLI(11),XKLV(11),
11,REFAC(11),XKUL(11),XKLI(11),XKLV(11),
120,REFAC(11),XKUL(11),XKLI(11),XKLV(11),
130,REFAC(11),XKUL(11),XKLI(11),XKLV(11),
140,REFAC(11),XKUL(11),XKLI(11),XKLV(11),
142,REFAC(11),XKUL(11),XKLI(11),XKLV(11),
144,REFAC(11),XKUL(11),XKLI(11),XKLV(11)
```

COVERT IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH READS IN VALUES OF ANGLE
FFOR THE FORWARD STAGNATION POINT AND RADIALS FROM THE
CENTER OF THE TUBE AND CONVERTS THESE TO X AND Y CARTESIAN
COORDINATES.

A10145C
A10146C
A10147C
A10148C
A10149C
A10150C
A10151C
A10152C
A10153C
A10154C
A10155C
A10156C
A10157C
A10158C
A10159C
A10160C
A10161C
A10162C
A10163C
A10164C
A10165C
A10166C
A10167C
A10168C
A10169C
A10170C
A10171C
A10172C
A10173C
A10174C
A10175C
A10176C
A10177C
A10178C
A10179C
A10180C
A10181C
A10182C
A10183C
A10184C
A10185C
A10186C
A10187C
A10188C
A10189C
A10190C
A10191C
A10192C

CALL CVERF(X,Y,R,PFFE,NNF)

KCRAF IS A SUBROUTINE USED TO DEVELOP THE CORRESPONDENCE TABLE IN ORDER TO CONNECT THE NODAL POINTS IN THE PROPER ORDER TO FORM THE PROPER TRIANGULAR GRID.

CALL KCFRF(KCRR,NEL)

GECM IS A SUBROUTINE USED TO FIGURE THE AREA OF EACH TRIANGULAR ELEMENT AND THE LENGTH OF ANY SIDE ALONG A CONVENTIONAL BOUNDARY CONDITION.

CALL GECM(NNF,NEL,X,Y,KCRR,ATRI,NCELO,XLC12,XL023,
NCE,NSEC)

FCRM8 IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH TAKES THE X AND Y COORDINATES AND THE AREA OF EACH TRIANGLE AND CONSTRUCTS THE LOCAL TREE BY THREE MATRIX FOR EACH ELEMENT. IT THEN SUPERIMPOSES EACH OF THE VALUES FROM THE LOCAL TREE BY THREE MATRIX UPON THE PROPERLY NUMBERED NODAL POINTS ACCORDING TO THE CORRESPONDENCE TABLE.

CALL FCFME(ATRI,NEL,NNP,X,Y,ZA,KORR,NLC,NLC)

ZASIC IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH STORES THE GLOBAL MATRIX, ZA, SO THAT IT NEED NOT BE REFORMED FOR EACH SUCCESSIVE ITERATION.

CALL ZASIC(NAP,ZA,ZAST,NLC,NLC)

CC CC

LEADS IS A SLEEVETIME WHICH DISTRIBUTES INITIAL VALUES OF TEMPERATURE DIFFERENCE (FIRST GUESSES) AT THE CONVECTION ASSOCIATED NODAL POINTS SO THAT THE LOCAL TEMPERATURE DEPENDENT HEAT TRANSFER COEFFICIENTS CAN BE CALCUATED THE FIRST TIME.

CALL TERCES (TEM, NBNPC, INCANPO)

PLCCC IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH FIGURES THE LOCAL HEAT TRANSFER COEFFICIENTS ON THE CLAD SIDE OF THE TUBE. THIS SUBROUTINE IS INCLUDED IN ALL ITERATIONS.

```

CALL FLCCC (X+FG,R+CL,P+CXMXUL,XMVU,XKLIC,XKSCL,PFEE,R,TEM,HCK,
INCEL,C,KCCR,NCQ,TEAR,PF,FEEBAR,VELST,CSLEEP)
TEAC=1

```

AK = U²4 Y²1 AGO
CO FACT 1²1 + T B AR (JU) * X²1 C 12 (JU)
AR = A R + Y²1 C 12 (JU)
ACAT TAUE 1²1 F
CATY = T F A C 1²1 F
KRITE 1²1 - Y²1 T AV
KRYPT 1²1 - Y²1 T AV
KRYPTA 1²1 - Y²1 T AV
AVERAGETENE 1²1 - E 10 . 5

FORAF IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH PLACES ZERSES IN THE RIGHT-HAND SIDE OF THE MATRIX EQUATION.

CALL FCFNF{F,[NP]}

FORCE IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH MODIFIES THE GLOBAL MATRIX FOR THE CONVECTION BOUNDARY CONDITIONS.

CALL FCFRCDO (NNP, ZA, KCFR, NCELL, NSDO, XLC12, XLC23, FCK, NCO
1:NLC,NIC)

PCCECCE IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH MODIFIES THE GLOBAL MATRIX AND
THE FORCING FUNCTION FOR THE SPECIFIED TEMPERATURES (ESSENTIAL
BOUNDARY CONDITIONS).
MAX=NLC+1

```
CALL PCCECCE(ZA,F,NNP,ACCLN,NEBC,NBC,FNEBC,NLC,NUC)
```

LE61E IS A SINGLE PRECISION LINEAR EQUATION SOLVER
SPECIFICALLY PROGRAMMED TO WORK UPON BANDED MATRICES.

```
CALL LE61E(ZA,NNP,NLC,NLC,320,F,1,1,0,XL,IER)
```

CLOSE IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH CHECKS AFTER EACH ITERATION TO
SEE IF THE NEW TEMPERATURE DIFFERENCES AGREE WITH THE OLD
ONES. IF AGREEMENT IS NOT SUFFICIENT, IT REPLACES THE PRESENT
GLOBAL MATRIX WITH THE ONE, UNMODIFIED ONE AND CAUSES
THE ITERATIONS TO BEGIN AGAIN, BUT WITH THE NEW VALUES
OF LOCAL TEMPERATURE DIFFERENCE.

```
CALL CLOSE(F,TEM,NAF,NEAF,NCANP0,ZA,ZAST,NCUN,NCFK  
1,NUC,NLC)  
IF(NAFK.EQ.5) GO TO 103  
NST=1  
CALL HLLCC(X+F,G,R+C,L,P+C,V,XMU,V,XKLIG,XKSOL,PHEE,R,TEM,HOK,  
1,NCCLC,KCR,ACC,TBAR,PF,FEEBAR,VELST,CSUEP)  
CALL FCF4,F,FCF4,ACC,F,NMP  
FORMAT(4,1) ACC FOR FCFC4,=15)  
CALL FCF4,FCF4,ACC,0>NNP,ZA,KORR,NCFLC,NSDC,XLC12,  
1XL,C2,1,FCF4,ACC,NUC,NLC  
CALL FCCE(ZA,F,1,1,0,XL,IER)  
CALL LE61E(ZA,NNP,NLC,NLC,320,F,1,1,0,XL,IER)  
EC 541 F=1,NNP,9  
EC
```

474 4

WRITER (E 102) MR F (W.R)
WRITER (E 102) F (W.R)
REFORMATORY (FIC. 5)
CULTIVATION (FIC. 5)
FC FATTING (FIC. 5))
1945
1946

CREATE IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH CHECKS TO INSURE THAT

```
CALL CREATE(XKSCL,XKLIC,F,X,Y,MCCUN,TBAR,YEAR,IH,  
1KORR,ACC,ACELC,XLO1)
```

CUTF IS A SUBROUTINE WHICH OUTPUTS THE X AND Y COORDINATES AND THE LOCAL TEMPERATURE DIFFERENCE, EACH TO AN OFFLINE PRINTER AND TO A DISC IN CREEF TO BE PLOTTED USING AVAILABLE PLOTTING SUBROUTINES.

```

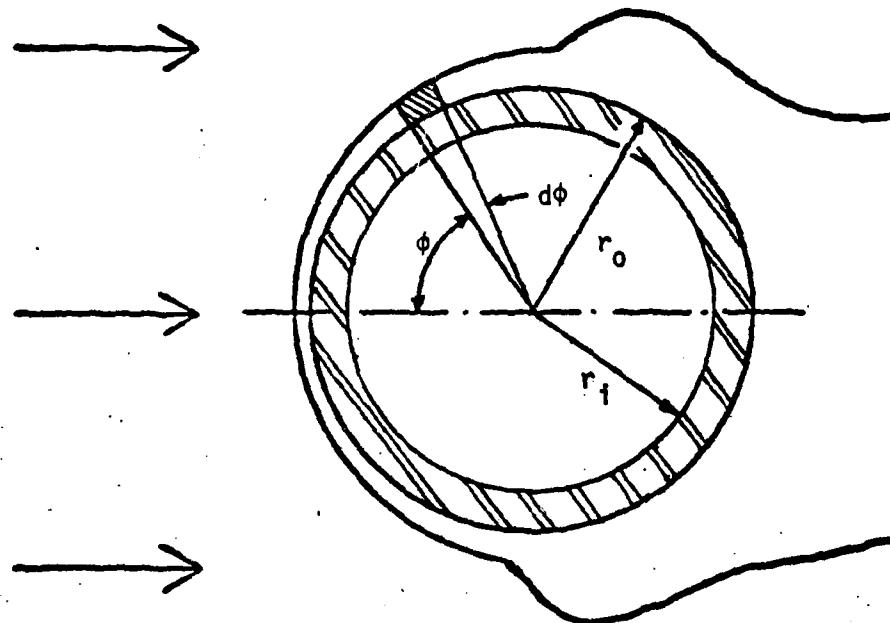
C CALL CLTIF(X,Y,NNP,F)
C TCP
C FORMAT(15.15,15.15,15)
C FCFMAT(15.15,15.6(10.5))
C END

C CIRCLE LINE CYERT(X2,Y2,R,PHEE,NNP)
C DIREC(15.15) R(15),PHEE(15C)
C REAL(15.15) Y(15C)
C READ(15,15) NANG
C FORHAT(15,15)
C CUE(110,111,111)NANG(7)
C READE(15,15,111)FHEE(JT+1),PHEE(JT+4)
C 1 FORTEAT(15,15,111)FHEE(JT+1),PHEE(JT+3)
C 1 FORTEAT(15,15,111)FHEE(JT+1),PHEE(JT+2)
C 1 FORTEAT(15,15,111)FHEE(JT+1),PHEE(JT+1)
C 1 FORTEAT(15,15,111)FHEE(JT+1),PHEE(JT+0)
C 1 CUE(110,111,111)NRAD
C READE(15,15,111)F(JS)
C 1 FORMAT(15,15,111)F(JS)
C 1 FORTEAT(15,15,111)F(JS)
C 1 CCAT(15,15,111)F(JS)
C
C 111
C 112
C 113
C 114

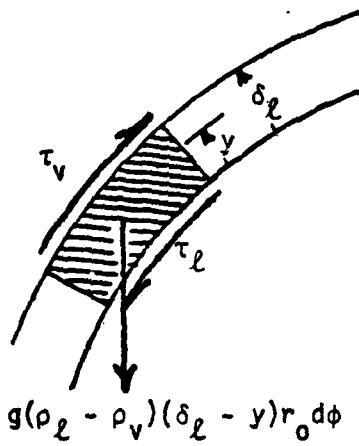
```

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APPENDIX C



(a)



(b)

Figure 1. Schematic diagrams of physical model.

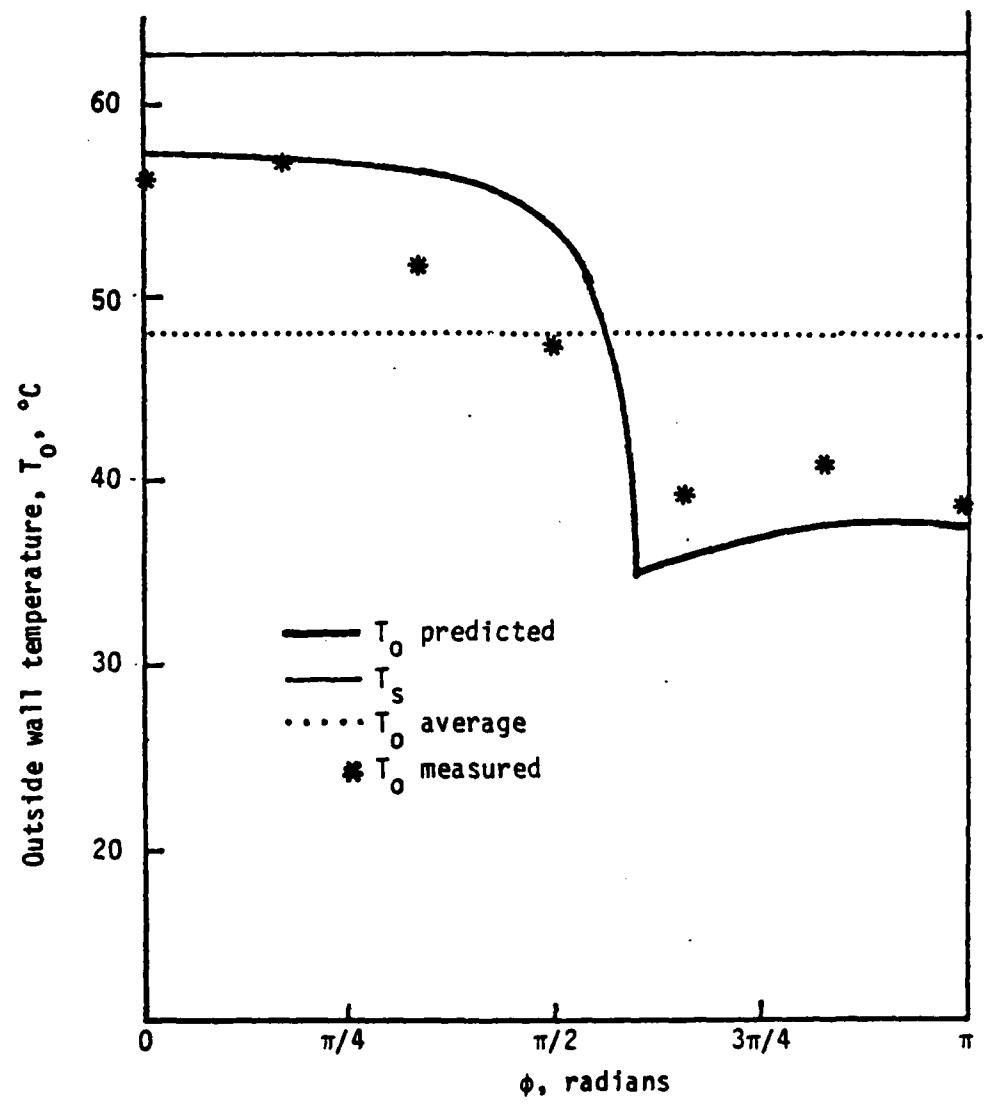


Figure 2. Predicted and measured T_o versus angle from stagnation point [18].

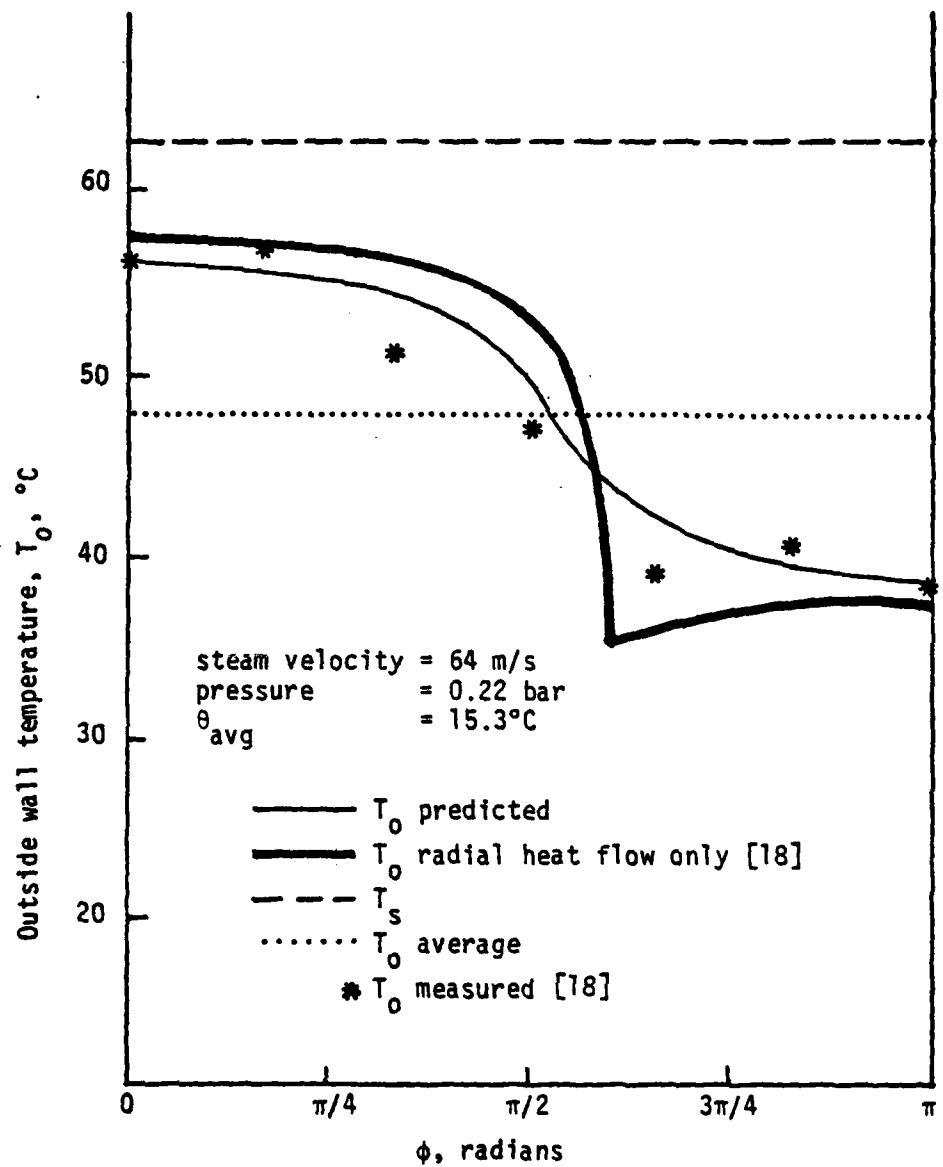


Figure 3. Predicted and measured T_o versus angle from forward stagnation point.

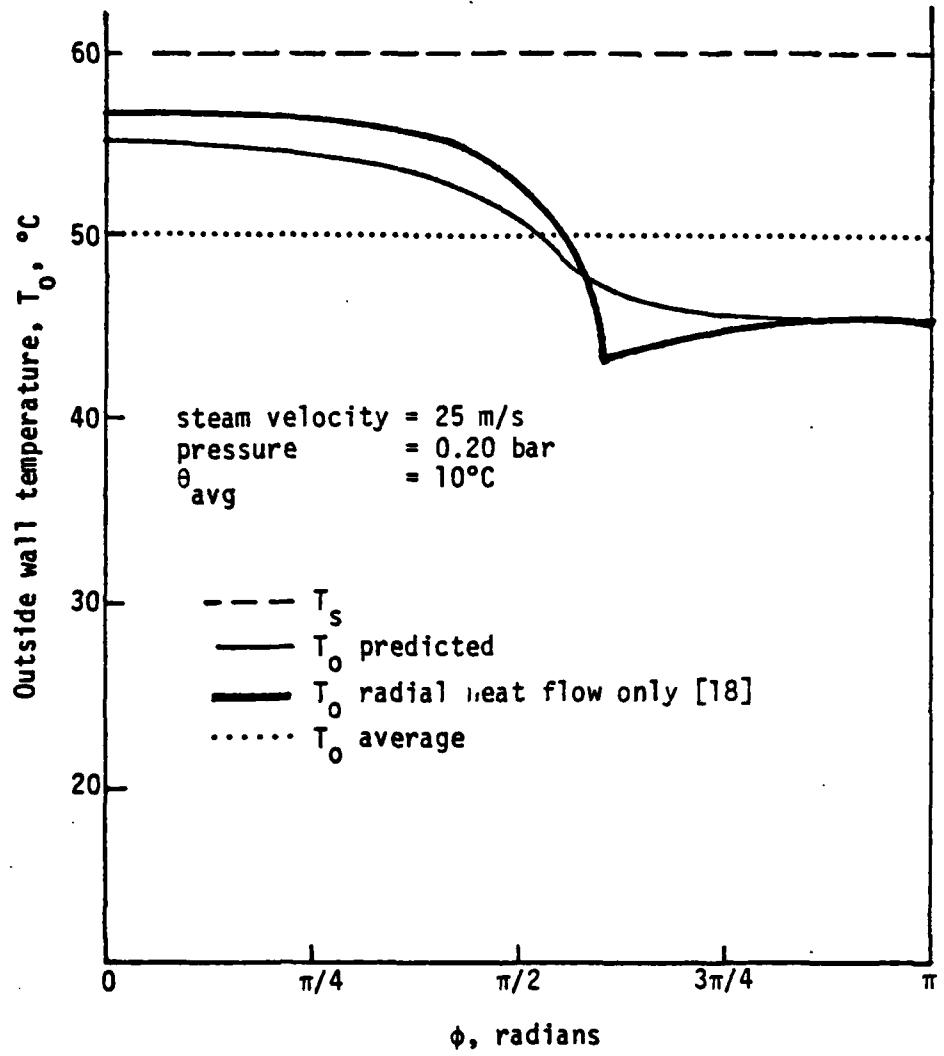


Figure 4. Predicted T_0 versus angle from forward stagnation point.

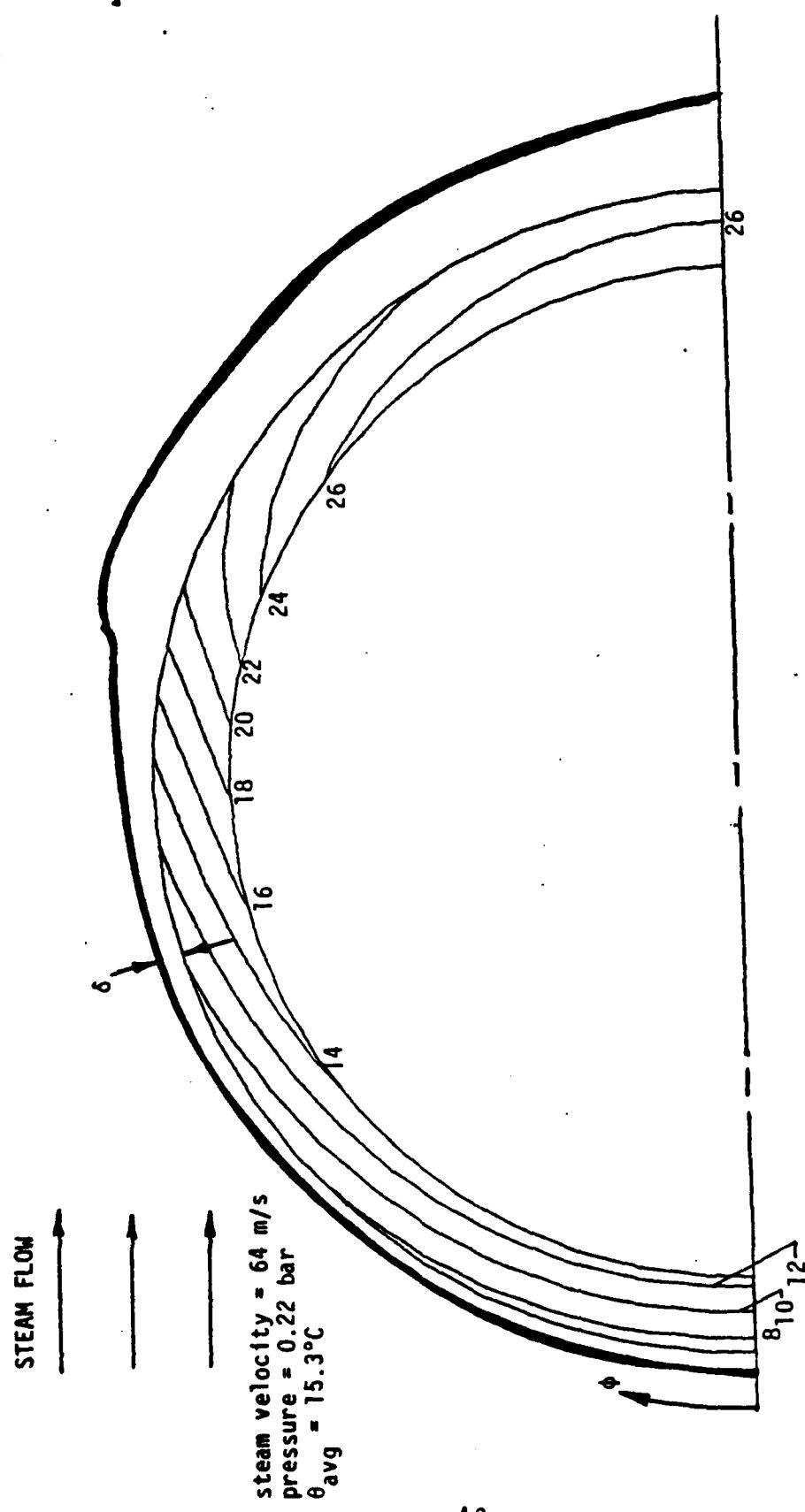


Figure 5. Isotherms (in degrees Celsius) of θ inside tube wall for top half of tube. Thickness of condensate film is shown with a magnification of 25 times.

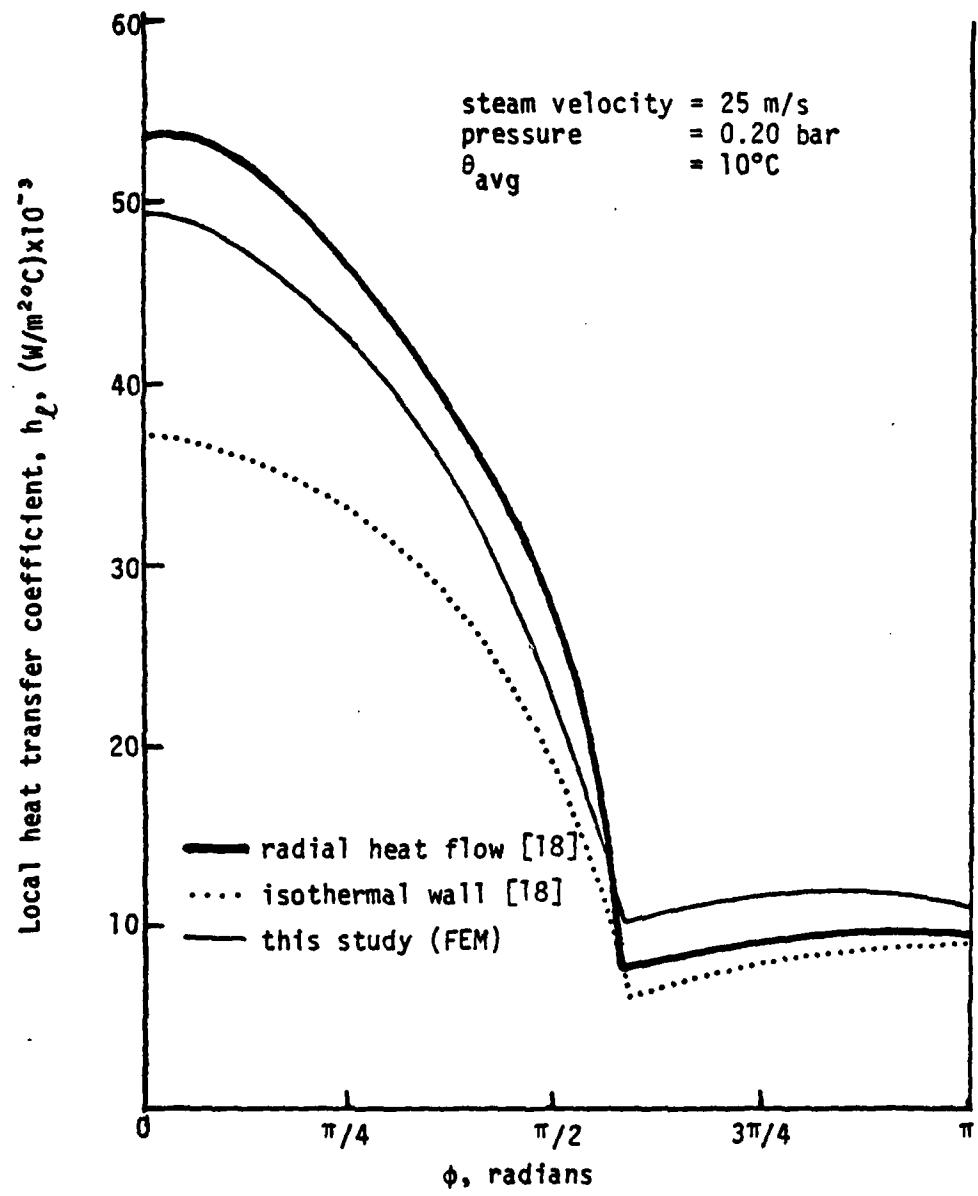


Figure 6. Predicted local heat transfer coefficient versus angle from forward stagnation point.

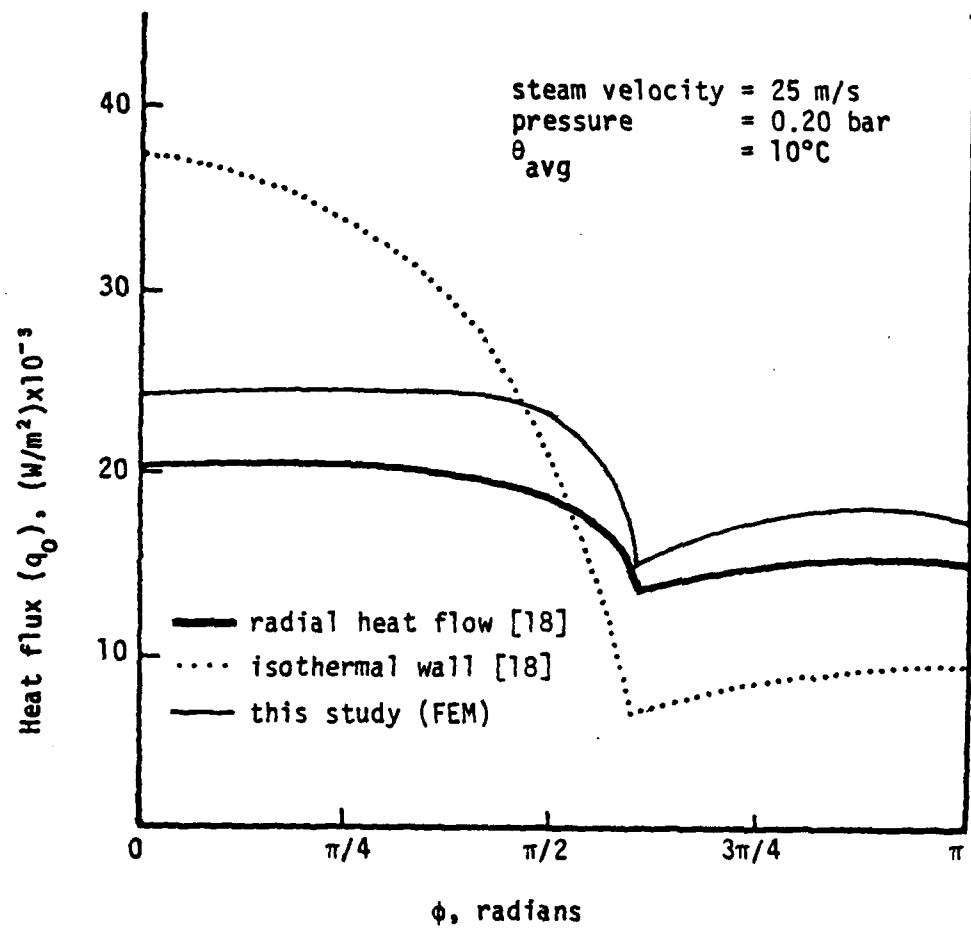


Figure 7. Predicted local heat flux versus angle from forward stagnation point.

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